

⇒ Standardizing the notion of Running Time

⇒ Big-O notation; asymptotic analysis

Consideration 1: Running time typically depends on input size

Example: Insertion sort takes longer in larger arrays

Idea: Parametrize running time by input size

$T(n)$ - running time on inputs of size n

Consideration 2: Running time may depend on other features of the input
(not only size)

Example: Insertion sort's running time depends on how sorted input list is

Idea: Consider worst-case input.

Consideration 3: May depend on your computer.

Example: Some computers are faster.

Idea: Assume all basic steps take constant time (say 1 unit)

What is a basic step? It depends but we typically assume that they include

⇒ Arithmetic (with "small" numbers)

· addition, subtraction, multiplication, mod, etc.

⇒ Comparisons (of small quantities)

⇒ Data movement (small amounts; i.e., a number)

· Load, Store, Copy

Definition (Running Time)

$T(n)$ = number of basic steps on worst-case input of size n .

Example 1:

Input: Positive integer n

sum = 0

for $i=1$ to n^2
└ sum = sum + 1.

m = 1
for $i=1$ to n
└ m = m * i

return sum + m;

Running time?

Number of sums: $2n^2 + n + 3$

Number of multiplications: n

Number of comparisons: $n^2 + n + 2$

Number of variable assignments:

$2n^2 + 2n + 4$

So:

$$T(n) = (2n^2 + n + 3) \cdot C_{\text{sum}} + n \cdot C_{\text{mult}} + (n^2 + n + 2) \cdot C_{\text{comp}} + (2n^2 + 2n + 4) \cdot C_{\text{store}}$$

↑ ↑ ↑ ↑
 TIME IT TAKES TIME IT TAKES TO TIME IT TAKES TO TIME IT
 TO SUM TWO MULTIPLY TWO COMPARE TWO TAKES TO
 NUMBERS NUMBERS NUMBERS ASSIGN A
 NUMBERS

Under our assumptions: $C_{\text{sum}} = C_{\text{mult}} = C_{\text{comp}} = C_{\text{store}} = 1$ (unit time).

$$T(n) = 2n^2 + n + 3 + n + n^2 + n + 2 + 2n^2 + 2n + 4$$

$$T(n) = 5n^2 + 5n + 9 \rightarrow \text{running time}$$

→ This is a lot better! than what we did for Insertion Sort, but we would like even simpler expressions for convenience, simpler comparison of algorithms, etc.

④ ⇒ We want to report only the term of $T(n)$ that dominates its growth. So we will say that:

$$T(n) = 3n^2 + 3n + 1 = O(n^2)$$

→ Ignoring lower order terms and all constants!!!

Let's make this formal.

Big O notation:

Definition

For non-negative functions f and g , we say that

$$f(n) = O(g(n))$$

if \exists constants $C > 0$ and $n_0 > 0$ such that

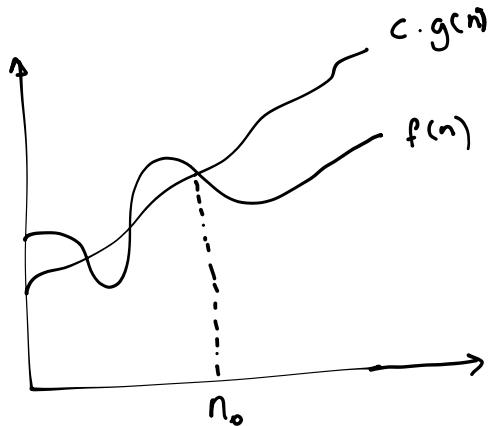
$$f(n) \leq C \cdot g(n)$$

for all $n \geq n_0$

In words:

The function $f(n)$ grows at most as fast as $C \cdot g(n)$.

In pictures:



Example 1:

$$6n^2 = O(n^3).$$

Proof Need to find C and n_0 such that $6n^2 \leq Cn^3 \quad \forall n \geq n_0$

Take $C = 6$ and $n_0 = 1$.

(This is not the unique combination of C and n_0)

(n_0 and C can depend on each other.)

Example 2:

$$6n^2 = O(n^2)$$

Proof Take $C = 6, n_0 = 1$.

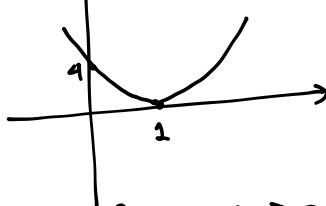
Example 3:

$$4n^2 + 8n - 4 = O(n^2)$$

Proof: Take $C=8$. When does the following holds?

$$4n^2 + 8n - 4 \leq 8 \cdot n^2$$

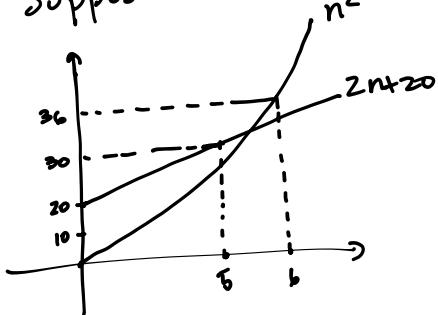
$$0 \leq 4n^2 - 8n + 4 = 4(n-1)^2$$



Enough to take $n_0=2$ [Any $n_0 > 0$ would work] ■

Example 4:

Suppose	Algorithm 1 takes	$2n+20$ basic steps.
Suppose	Algorithm 2 takes	n^2 basic steps



- For $n \leq 6$ Algorithm 2 is faster.
- For $n \geq 6$ Algorithm 1 is faster.
- With big O notation we can ignore what happens for small values of n .

$$2n+20 = O(n)$$

$$C=3, n_0=20$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2n+20 &\leq 3n \\ 20 &\leq n \end{aligned}$$

$$n^2 = O(n^2)$$

$$C_0=1, n_0=1$$

In Conclusion:

Algorithm 1 has better asymptotic running time. [i.e., for large input sizes, Algorithm 1 is faster.]

⇒ Big O notation is for upper bounds. What about lower bounds?

Definition For non-negative functions f and g , we say that

$$f(n) = \mathcal{S}(g(n))$$

If $\exists c > 0$ and $n_0 > 0$ such that

$$f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n)$$

$$\forall n \geq n_0$$

In words: f is bounded from below by g (asymptotically)

Example 1:

$$n^2 = \mathcal{S}(n)$$

$$c=1, n_0=1$$

$$n^2 \geq n$$

Example 2:

$$n^e = \mathcal{S}(n^2)$$

$$c=1, n_0=1$$

Observation: $f(n)$ can be $O(g(n))$ and $\mathcal{S}(g(n))$. In this case, we say:

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$$

↳ "Theta"

In words: $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ are of the same order (asymptotically).

Some useful facts

1 Multiplicative constants can be omitted.

$$a \cdot f(n) = O(f(n)) \quad \text{Proof: Take } c=a \text{ and } n_0=1.$$

2 $n^b = O(n^a)$ for $a \geq b$.

Proof: $c = 1, n_0 = 1$

$$n^b \leq n^a \text{ for } a \geq b. \blacksquare$$

- 3 If $f(n) = O(h(n))$ and $g(n) = O(h(n))$. Then,
 $f(n) + g(n) = O(h(n)).$

Proof:

$\exists c, c', n_0, n'_0$ such that $\forall n \geq \max\{n_0, n'_0\}$

$$f(n) \leq c \cdot h(n), \text{ and}$$

$$g(n) \leq c' \cdot h(n)$$

$$\text{Adding up: } f(n) + g(n) \leq (c + c') \cdot h(n)$$

- 4 Polynomials are easy

$$a_d \cdot n^d + a_{d-1} \cdot n^{d-1} + \dots + a_1 \cdot n + a_0 = O(n^d)$$

Proof. Follows from 1, 2 and 3.

- 5 Constants are $O(1)$. Proof: Take $C = \text{constant}$.

- 6 Any exponential dominates any polynomial.

Example: $n^5 = O(2^n)$

$$C = 3 \quad n_0 = 21$$

$$n^5 \leq 3 \cdot 2^n$$

- 7 Any polynomial dominates any logarithm.

Example: $(\log n)^3 = O(n) \quad (\log n)^{100} = O(n)$

$$n \log n = O(n^2)$$

8

The basis of logarithms are irrelevant.

$$\log_a n = \Theta(\log_b n)$$

The proofs of 6, 7 and 8 are left as exercises.

Other Key Properties:

Fact 1: Let f and g be two functions such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}$$

exists and is equal to some number $a > 0$.

Then $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$.

Proof: From the definition of limit (" ε -definition"), we have that for any $\varepsilon > 0 \exists n_0$ such that $\forall n \geq n_0$

$$\left| \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} - a \right| \leq \varepsilon$$

Then:

$$|f(n) - ag(n)| \leq \varepsilon \cdot g(n)$$

$$(a - \varepsilon) \cdot g(n) \leq f(n) \leq (a + \varepsilon) g(n)$$

Hence, $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$

$$\text{So, } f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \quad \blacksquare$$

Fact 2: If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \neq \infty$, then $f = O(g)$

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \neq 0$ then $f = \Omega(g)$.

Proof: Exercise.

Note: While limits are very useful for determining O and Ω , there are drawbacks (e.g., sometimes they do not exist).

Fact 3 (Transitivity)

Suppose $f = O(g(n))$ and $g(n) = O(h(n))$.

Then, $f = O(h(n))$.

Proof $\exists c > 0, n_0 > 0$ such that for all $n \geq n_0$

$$f(n) \leq c g(n).$$

$\exists c' > 0, n'_0 > 0$ such that $\forall n \geq n'_0$:

$$g(n) \leq c' h(n)$$

So, $f(n) \leq c \cdot c' \cdot h(n) \quad \forall n \geq \max\{n_0, n'_0\}$.

Fact 4 If $f(n) = O(h_1(n))$ and $g(n) = O(h_2(n))$.

Then, $f(n) \cdot g(n) = O(h_1(n) \cdot h_2(n))$

Proof : Exercise

Recap True or False?

① $n^2 - 5n - 100 = O(n)$

False

If it were true, $\exists c, n_0$ s.t. $\forall n \geq n_0$

$$n^2 - 5n - 100 \leq cn$$

$$n^2 - (5+c)n - 100 \leq 0.$$

This false for any $c \geq 0$ provided n is large enough.

② $n^2 + O(n) = O(n^2)$

True

By convention, $n^2 + O(n)$ means $n^2 + f(n)$ for some $f(n) = O(n)$.

So, it follows from 2 and 3 above.

③ $2^{n+1} = O(2^n)$ True

$$2^{n+1} = 2 \cdot 2^n = O(2^n).$$

④ $2^{2n} = O(2^n)$ False.

$2^{2n} = 4^n$. Then, we would need $c_1 n_0 : 4^n \geq c n_0$
 $4^n \leq c \cdot 2^n \Rightarrow 2^n \leq c$ which is false for n large.

⑤ $\log n^2 = O(\log n)$ True

$$\log n^2 = 2 \log n = O(\log n)$$

⑥ $5n - O(n) = \mathcal{O}(n)$ False

Take $f(n) = 5n - \sqrt{n}$

$$5n - f(n) = 5n - O(n)$$

But, $5n - f(n) = \sqrt{n}$ which is not $\mathcal{O}(n)$.

Note: Fastest computers in the world do $\sim 10^{18}$ steps / s.

Suppose $n = 100,000,000$ (input size)

# of operations	vs	Time
n		< 1 ms
$n \log n$		< 1 ms
n^2		~ 10 ms
n^3		~ 12 days
n^4		~ 3 million years
2^n		...